DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 257 334 HE 018 362

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TITLE An Update on the Organization and Administration of Learning Assistance Programs in U.S. Senior Institutions of Higher Education.
PUB DATE [85]
NOTE 52p.
PUB TYPE Historical Materials (060) -- Information Analyses (070)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS College Admission; College Libraries; *College Preparation; *College Programs; Counseling Services; *Developmental Studies Programs; Educational History; Guidance Programs; Higher Education; Liberal Arts; Low Income Groups; Program Administration; Reading Skills; *Remedial Programs; *Remedial Reading; Standardized Tests; Tutoring; *Upper Division Colleges

ABSTRACT

The history of learning assistance (e.g., courses, tutorials, and counseling) in U.S. senior colleges is traced, starting with the period 1830-1875. With the establishment of New York University in 1830 came a growth of liberal education over classical training and a new emphasis on instruction in English and preparatory education. When the 1862 Morrill Act established land-grant colleges, new courses increased the need for preparatory courses. Additional developments include: the founding of the College Entrance Examination Board in 1890 and a move to uniform college admission requirements; the need for greatly improved reading and writing skills with the development of humanities and science courses; emphasis on research and on the library as the headquarters of the scholar; the emergence of counseling and guidance programs; reading studies and the first reading tests for college students; the first survey of remedial assistance in 1929; the introduction of standardized tests for college students; special admissions for low income groups; and the growth of learning centers and developmental education. Also discussed are: surveys of remedial reading in the early 1940s; research on college assistance programs since the 1950s; and a current literature review of programs. (SW)

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AN UPDATE ON THE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF LEARNING ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS IN U.S. SENIOR INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

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by

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HE 018 362

Review of Related Literature

Introduction

While the concept of college learning assistance programs offering a wide variety of services, including courses, workshops, seminars, tutorials and counseling is a relatively recent phenomenon, various remedial and developmental offerings have been a part of the American college curriculum since the mid-1800's when colleges first offered preparatory courses for the underprepared (Leedy, 1958; Maxwell, 1979; Enright & Kerstiens, 1980). Prior to the middle of the nineteenth century, the practices and policies of American higher education were such that learning assistance would have been neither available nor condoned. Since the purpose of higher education at that time was the preparation of an educated clergy, admissions requirements included proficiency in the ancient tongues in which the curriculum would be taught. Proficiency in English was not a requisite as most early textbooks were exclusively in Latin and Greek. A catalog of the Harvard library for 1723 which contained 250 books indicated that 65% were Latin titles (Leedy, 1958).

Not only was ability in the Mother Tongue not required, its use was hardly countenanced. Harvard specifically prohibited the use of English within the college yard. In this same tradition, according to Dexter (1901), Yale published in the Laws of the College this admonition:

> No scholar shall use ye english tongue in ye college with his fellow scholars unless he be called to the publick exercise proper to be attended in ye english tongue, but scholars in their chambers and when they are together shall talk lattin. (pp. 348-349).

Latin, Greek and Hebrew were the subjects which the students mastered and in which they were instructed (Broome, 1903). Reading assignments in English such as are commonplace in today's colleges and universities were unknown in seventeenth, eighteenth and much of nineteenth century education. Studying in college during that period meant slow and meticulous translation emphasizing grammar, construction and syntax. Continuous recitation was the mode of expression.

Even the library was not often available as a place of learning. Books were scarce and jealously guarded during colonial times to the extent that the Harvard library was forbidden to all except senior classmen, faculty and college Overseers. It was 1835 before Columbia University allowed lower classmen into its library and even then, in keeping with the custodial and supervisorial role of the librarian, extreme censorship over acquisitions and loans was exercised (Shores, 1934).

It was not until collegiate literary societies were established during the end of the eighteenth century that scholars were offered the reading fare needed to supplement their intellectual diets. The members of those groups, variously known as debating societies, speaking clubs or literary societies and called by euphonic Hellenic names, established libraries to which members had unlimited access and complete control of acquisitions (Leedy, 1958).

It is not difficult to understand, therefore, given a program of study such as that embodied in the classical tradition that there were no attempts to provide learning assistance. Such an idea would have defied the rigor, monotony and time consumption expected of the colonial scholar. Since extensive reading was not a characteristic of higher education until the introduction of English into the curricula and the consequent emergence of bibliocentric education, assistance with academic endeavors would have been as foreign to the academy as the classical curriculum is today. But the 1830's saw a new era emerging.

History of Learning Assistance in Senior Colleges

1830-1875

While the predominance of the classical influence on the nation's colleges prevailed until mid-nineteenth century, probably the first evidence of change arose with the establishment in 1930 of a university in the city of New York, now known as New York University. It was in the New York City common council chamber that a "convention of literary and scientific gentlemen" established "a preparatory college in which should be taught mathematics, physical and moral science, English literature, and belles letters, not to the exclusion of classical learning" (Leedy, 1958). The establishment of this English college was followed shortly thereafter by the founding of Wesleyan University whose President, Wilbur Fisk, called for the study of English in lieu of Latin and Greek. While the debate between classicism and liberalism which flared wherever schoolmen and scholars gathered did not subside

until after World War I (National Education Association, 1907), there were indications that change was well underway during the mid-nineteenth century. The new emphasis on instruction in English and preparatory education was not without problems.

In 1836, John Todd responded to the students' needs by writing the first how-to-study manual (Todd, 1836). It was entitled The Student's Manual and introduced topics such as the nature, object and importance of study, time management, finances, exercise, diet, ideals and aspirations. The rudiments of the currently ubiquitous SQ3R technique of study (Robinson, 1941) were presented in some detail. All in all, it was a remarkable publication given the tenor of the times. It was well received in Europe as well as America (Todd, 1876).

Some evidence of concern over students lack of readiness for new university studies in English was voiced by Henry P. Tappan in his 1852 inaugural address as president of the University of Michigan. He lamented the fact that colleges were too much involved in teaching rudimentary courses for the poorly prepared (Maxwell, 1979).

When President Lincoln signed the Morrill Act in 1862 establishing land-grant colleges to teach agricultural and mechanical courses, it afforded an entirely new philosophical premise to the purposes of higher education. With the establishment of these colleges came the increased need for preparatory courses.

The next era would see the triumph of liberal education over classical training, education of the common man over elitism.

1876-1915

Probably it would be impossible to pinpoint the exact year when the traditions of classicism yielded to the modern approach to higher education, but 1876 appears significant for several reasons. First, 1876 was the year the American Library Association was formed. It was also the year that the Library Journal was first published. This publication promoted the pertinency of reading to higher education (Shores, 1934).

Second, the founding of Johns Hopkins in 1876 introduced the spirit of research modeled after the German university. Few concepts in modern education have so increased the reading load or demanded more strategies and skills in studying than has the idea of research. For the library is the habitat of the serious scholar in a research oriented curriculum, and study reading is the principal means whereby its resources are obtained.

In 1877 the editor of the Library Journal published an article, "Learning to Read in College" (Bowker, 1877) in response to the problems students were encountering with reading assignments. This publication was followed closely by the introduction of the survey technique in reading and emphasis on rapid reading (Winsor, 1880).

During this same period, in response to faculty complaints about students' writing performance, Harvard designed the first freshman English course (Maxwell, 1979). Since most of the emphasis in classical education involved memorization and recitation, very little written communication had been required. The demands of a

liberal curriculum embued with a spirit of research required analysis and communication of ideas and findings.

In this same period, the Second Morrill Act was passed. This 1890 act increased federal aid to colleges for implementing programs in applied science and mechanical arts. The rationale of the bill was that every American citizen was entitled to receive some form of higher education (Maxwell, 1979). Thus, legislative action combined with the events of 1876 to free American higher education from the traditionalism of the past.

In addition, in 1890 the College Entrance Examination Board was founded. This represented an attempt to make college admission requirements uniform. The attempt of uniformity of standards and the competition for students to the many colleges being established throughout the United States meant that many institutions would be admitting unprepared students.

Over half the students matriculating at Harvard, Yale, Columbia and Princeton in 1907 did not meet admission requirements. A variety of preparatory courses were designed to bridge this gap. The United States Commissioner of Education reported 350 colleges offering various types of preparatory programs by 1915 (Maxwell, 1979).

It was during the 1880's that the curriculum began to expand to include courses in the humanities and sciences which required considerable reading. Reading deficiencies of college students began to surface with the demands of the broadened curriculum, the newly-embraced research emphasis introduced by the Germans and the emphasis on the library as the headquarters of the scholar.

The end of the nineteenth century also saw the influence of the German psychologists with their investigations in perception and reading. Americans who had studied in Europe returned home and began using college students for their experimental studies. It was then confirmed that these students were not reading as well as they might (Abell, 1894; Quantz, 1897).

It was during this same period of time that President John Bradley of Illinois College wrote the controversial opinion, "Whatever views we may hold concerning the educational value of different subjects, all agree that it is less important what one studies than how he studies" (Bradley, 1876, p. 199). This growing awareness of the importance of study habits and that college students had problems in this respect led to the publication in 1909 of one of the first books on study and study methods. This book was entitled, How to Study and Teaching How to Study (McMurry, 1909).

Another development of importance to student learning assistance at the collegiate level during this time was the emergence of counseling and guidance programs. This confirmation of the importance of the individual student (Harper, 1905) was further supported by the growth of the elective system. Whereas in 1860 students took every course the college offered, by 1884 Harvard capitulated to the elective movement and dropped all freshman required courses in Latin and Greek. Curricular expansion and increased enrollments exacerbated the need for counseling and guidance in course selection and techniques of effective study.

One of the first formal attempts to improve the learning skills of college students was inaugerated at Harvard in 1915. The program was instituted because of parental complaints that students who were not succeeding did not know how to study. The college responded by admitting that not only those who were failing but also the great majority of college students "need positive help and considerable direction as to the nature of their undertaking" (Moore, 1915, p. 100).

Perhaps one of the most illuminating comments on the abdication of responsibility in regard to learning assistance appeared in a 1915 issue of School and Society (Moore, 1915, p. 100) which described the Harvard course:

> It is a little surprising, when one considers the number of men and women who are engaged in studying and the momentus consequences to them individually as well as to society at large which attach to their mastery of that activity, that so little attention has been given by teaching institutions to instruction in that subject.

No text was used for this Harvard course largely because "no satisfactory book on this subject seems to exist, which is itself striking evidence of the lack of interest which college teachers have taken and still take in the work of the college student" (Moore, 1915, p. 100). But this void of materials was soon to be addressed in the decade ahead when nearly 100 books on study habits were written to coincide with the guidance movement (Blake, 1953).

Summary 1830-1915

And so it was that the period from 1830 to 1915 produced inexorable changes in American higher education. Much of what had been the traditional curriculum passed away or was absorbed with the

newer emphasis on research. Empiricism replaced authoritarianism and combined with liberalization of the curriculum and enrollment growth to produce far-reaching changes in postsecondary education in the United States.

As is so often the case, Harvard responded to the changing times and resultant student needs by being among the first to introduce a study improvement program. The next period saw these courses emulated on campuses across the nation. The influence that seemed to be the principal determinative of change in college learning assistance, however, was the experimental approach to learning skills, and, in particular, reading skills.

1916-1959

In the decade following World War I, short-term study improvement courses were offered through English, education and psychology departments (Blake, 1953). The University of Chicago attempted to improve the silent reading of college freshmen enrolled in a college English course (National Society for the Study of Education, 1920). Textbooks used included Ketson's How to Use Your Mind (1916), McMurry's How to Study and Teaching How to Study (1909), Adams' Making the Most of One's Mind (1915) and Sandwick's How to Study and What to Study (1915). Laboratory exercises were a part of the course (National Society for the Study of Education, 1920).

During the late 1920's several significant studies investigating the reading abilities, reading habits and reading instruction of college freshmen (Albright, 1927; Brook, 1927;

Remmers, 1927) affirmed the need for a college orientation course to assist students in mastering study skills (Fitts & Swift, 1928).

It was at this time that the first reading tests specifically for college students were published by the University of Minnesota (Eurich, 1929; Haggerty & Eurich, 1929). Norms were established using thousands of college students. These tests enabled those involved in learning assistance efforts to begin measuring the results of their endeavors, and programs were becoming commonplace enough to warrant a national survey.

Parr's Survey, 1929

The first survey of remedial assistance was conducted by Frank Parr in 1929 as part of the preliminary survey for his doctoral thesis. Results were presented in a brief article in School and Society (Parr, 1930).

Parr (1929) sent a questionnaire to every state university in the United States. Forty replies were received. Only nine of the forty responding institutions offered remedial instruction. For the most part, the instruction was offered in "how to study" courses. The next decade was to see a burgeoning of such programs (Leedy, 1958).

During the 1930's clinical, analytical and scientific sources became a part of student support programs (Enright & Kerstiens, 1980). An increased emphasis on reading instruction in these programs may have been due in large part to the popularity of the general survey course, which typically required extensive and lengthy reading assignments.

Another cause may have been the mandate of some state legislatures that state universities admit graduates from state high schools regardless of class standing. The University of Minnesota was forced to establish a General College for unprepared students.

Instruments such as the tachistoscope enabled instructors to teach phrase reading and other speed reading aids to address the challenges of increased reading assignments and lack of preparation for college level work. Behren's study (1930) demonstrated the value of such training for college freshmen. Interest in this type of investigation was also being widened at many state universities (Leedy, 1958).

The public school emphasis on remedial reading during this period served as an impetus for the establishment of college and university reading clinics. These clinics served as teacher training centers and provided programs needed by their undergraduates as well (Gray, 1938).

One of the programs in operation during the late 1930's boasted the use of a battery of psychological, reading, vocabulary and physiological tests, the latter to determine visual defects. Individual student profiles were prepared, and these were discussed with each student in conferences. Group sessions on study skills improvement were also a part of the program (Gray, 1936).

The 1930's saw the rise of the importance of reading improvement in academic assistance programs. In the previous decade, reading had been ancillary to the how-to-study courses

(Leedy, 1958). The growth of research interest in college students' reading abilities also characterized this decade. The refinement of educational measurement facilitated this trend. The teaching of skills improvement through instrumentation, such as films, controlled readers, and tachistoscopic devices also characterized more comprehensive programs (Leedy, 1958).

Witty's Survey, 1940

During the next decade Witty (1940) reported an investigation of 131 colleges to ascertain the nature and scope of remedial instruction for poor readers. He found that, on the whole, opportunities for college students to improve their reading skills were meager. He also pointed out that the diagnostic services overshadowed the corrective measures available. After a careful analysis of students' problems, most institutions failed to provide a systematic group or individual instruction plan (Witty, 1940). Parr (1930) a decade earlier, had reported the same situation.

In regard to the training and rank of personnel in the programs, Witty (1940) found that only 14 of the 131 respondents had completed specific courses in reading. Instruction was usually provided by an individual whose rank was that of assistant in either the department of education or psychology. More than half the work was given by graduate students.

Forty-one of the institutions gave credit for their remedial offerings. Most used some type of college-level test for assessment of achievement with the Iowa Silent Reading test used by more than a third of the sample. Instruments were also

indicated as having a prominent place in instructional methodology. Generally, services were limited to freshmen and sophomores.

The institutions expressed a need for more adequate facilities. More time with students and more assistance were also cited as areas of need.

Charters' Survey, 1941

In the following year, Charters (1941) summarized the results of a nationwide survey of college practices in remedial reading. Of the 172 colleges submitting replies to the questionnaire, 106 reported having programs in operation. Some of Charters' findings (1941) have implications for this study of learning assistance programs.

The most frequently used measure of student improvement was pre- and post-test comparison. Placement included options in courses, usually noncredit, of the "how-to-study" variety and English or in independent units of study. Referral to the clinic or laboratory was usually by failure to obtain a minimum test score or by high school rank. Instructor nomination and self-referral were also indicated as referral methods. Participation in most programs was voluntary and size of classes ranged from 5 to 300, with the average between 14 and 40.

For the greater number of cases, the institution assumed responsibility for program costs. However, some charged nominal fees for supplies and materials.

Triggs' Survey, 1942

The next spring, Triggs (1942) surveyed 1,528 colleges and received usable replies from 300 institutions regarding college remedial

reading programs. She reported that 25% programs would be in operation by the Fall of 1942. Her survey was conducted to ascertain whether or not there was a potential market for remedial reading materials. Additionall, the survey yielded some state-of-the-art information for this period: (1) Programs averaged 41 students. (2) Only 21 programs had been initiated over five years earlier; the rest had commenced operations since 1937. (3) Respondents indicated a need for texts, manuals and exercises. (4) Most programs were offered under the auspices of education, English and psychology departments. (5) The majority offered separate courses within these three departments or with no departmental affiliation. (6) Not many institutions provided individualized programs. (7) No rigorous program evaluation was available.

Triggs (1942) concluded the main obstacles to making progress in college remedial support services were: (1) lack of trained personnel; (2) lack of inexpensive remedial materials; and (3) lack of adequate evaluation techniques. Since Triggs' program at the University of Minnesota utilized the model of clinical diagnosis followed by individual practice, she felt the development of textbooks which would inform instructors about available tests, describe diagnostic measures and show those in the field how to develop exercises to meet students' needs would be a useful aid to the field. She later authored these materials (Triggs, 1942, 1943), which served as useful tools for practitioners for many decades.

It was near the middle of this period that the term remedial reading, adopted from precollege education, began to assume a negative connotation (Wittenborn, 1944; Delong, 1948; Bear, 1953). This may have been partially due to the fact that the returning G. I.'s who flooded college campuses were more mature students and resented the application of the term "remedial". It may have been a result of the shift of skills instruction from psychology departments to counseling centers (Maxwell, 1979). Or, it may have been a result of the proliferation of required college orientation courses in which reading and study skills were taught as part of the course content. Since these courses were usually offered for credit, they were not to be considered remedial (Causey, 1955). Finally, the reason may well have been that during World War II men of the armed forces attended college for brief periods and needed assistance with learning in an accelerated fashion. Medical school training was reduced to three years. Officers and technicians needed speeded educational training. It was at this time that Robinson developed the SQ3R study reading method to assist these young men in learning as much as possible in as short a time as possible (Robinson, 1941). Therefore, when most of the students were receiving assistance in reading improvement, it was no longer appropriate to label the instruction "remedial". Robinson (1941) stated that the notion of learning assistance in the 40's was expanded from being appropriate only for the ill-prepared to the idea of being helpful for all students.

Individual counseling for returning servicemen was available in federally-funded vocational guidance centers after World War II.

These centers, originally established to assist returning G. I.'s in career selection and adjustment to campus life, became campuswide counseling centers. Many of these centers began to provide the basic reading, math, writing and study skills needed by many returning veterans, some of whom would never have attended college if it had not been for the opportunity offered by the G. I. Bill. Thus the roots of present day learning assistance programs were spawned out of the needs of returning servicemen eager to prepare themselves for the return to normalcy.

Walker's Survey, 1946

Though the term remedial was beginning to fall into disfavor about this time, Walker (1946) conducted a survey of remedial reading programs in Negro colleges and universities. Two questionnaires were sent to each of 102 institutions; one to the administrative head of the program and one to the dean of the college. Of the 59 responding institutions, 26 offered specific programs. Most were relatively new programs, but one had been in operation since 1935. The majority were operated solely by part-time personnel, served between 10 and 200 students, offered no credit, were compulsory and employed no instruments in their programs. Referrals to the program were a result of testing scores and nomination by instructors. Pre- and post-tests were the most commonly used means to measure achievement.

In his summary, Walker (1946) suggested that the term communication arts might replace remedial and developmental descriptors of college learning assistance programs. He emphasized

the need for attention to all communication skills. Further, Walker (1946) reinforced Triggs' (1942) expression of need for trained personnel.

The next decade, the 1950's, felt the influence of expanded knowledge and increased technology. Successful results were reported in programs using group psychotherapy (Johnson, 1952; Roman, 1957; Zolik & Byrce, 1959) and in those with personality development as the goal (Ransom, 1955; Smith, Wood, Downer & Raygor, 1956). Laboratory-type programs and classes with varied teaching approaches also were reported as successful (Moulton, 1952).

The need for courses to train instructors was voiced again (Strang, McCullough & Traxler, 1961) as well as the need for materials suitable for college students (Strang, 1951; Cherington, 1953).

A number of surveys of college assistance programs were reported during the fifties. Those with bearing on the current study are described below:

Blake's Survey, 1953

Blake (1953) surveyed college study skills programs in the United States and its possessions in 1953 to determine program goals, diagnostic and instructional practices, admission and credit policies, materials used, staff information and research needed. He received 49 usable responses.

The development of independent learners was the goal of most programs, and this was accomplished primarily through group instruction, counseling and laboratory practice. Programs were

evaluated by means of standardized reading tests, student questionnaires and subject matter examinations. Informal evaluation procedures such as students' journal entries were also being employed in some programs.

Blake reported that 43 of the 49 programs were conducting research related to study skills. Twenty-six were evaluating training techniques and 17 were attempting to determine the best means of improving their programs. Respondents indicated a need for training in evaluation skills.

Bamman's Survey, 1954

As part of his doctoral degree program and in preparation for the establishment of a study skills program at Stanford University, Bamman (1954) surveyed the study skills and developmental reading facilities at 100 colleges and universities throughout the nation. Bamman's findings confirmed the continuing absence of trained personnel to conduct study skills programs. He further reported little agreement concerning instructional practices and study materials. However, a large majority of the respondents were using mechanical instruments for student training. Greater emphasis was placed on comprehension and study skills than on speed of reading.

In terms of program needs, respondents cited more practice and study materials appropriate for college students, better funding, further training facilities and administrators who were better prepared to train program personnel.

Bamman's recommendations for Stanford's study skills program included:

(1) Incorporation of the program into student personnel services.

(2) Permanent staffing.

(3) Longitudinal research .

(4) Continuous evaluation.

(5) Teacher preparation included in the program.

(6) Research to develop valid evaluation tools.

(7) A campuswide student referral program.

Causey's Surveys, 1954 and 1955

Causey conducted two surveys (Causey, 1954, 1955) to determine the extent of reading programs in colleges and universities in the mid-fifties. Questionnaires were sent to all senior colleges and universities and to a representative list of junior colleges. Of the 575 respondents in 45 states, 418 institutions reported programs in progress in 1955 as compared with 268 in 1954. Programs were primarily controlled by English and education departments. More than a third of them awarded from one to five hours of credit. The use of instruments was reported in 391 programs, well over 90%.

Leedy's Survey, 1958

While not one of the largest, Leedy's survey (1958) was one of the most comprehensive. In addition to general information, the six page questionnaire conducted to determine the current state of college reading improvement programs was divided into four major classifications. Part 1 inquired about the history of the program in an attempt to determine trends. Part 2 queried respondents about diagnostic and evaluation practices. Part 3 solicited

information on materials and equipment. Staff, physical environment and curriculum were covered in Part 4.

Ninety-two usable responses were received from 138 who had indicated a willingness to participate in the study. The initial inquiry had been sent only to four-year fully-accredited colleges and universities whose reading centers were listed in the Appendix to the Fourth Yearbook of the Southwest Reading Conference published in 1955.

Leedy's findings revealed several pattersn in these programs. The growth in enrollment at most institutions had produced a problem of inability to serve all of those needing or requesting help. Further, burgeoning populations in the programs without commensurate staff increases prevented programs from meeting students' needs and resulted in more group instruction. Another noticeable shift revealed in Leedy's data was the emphasis away from accelerated reading to study-type reading.

Leedy reported that he was somewhat surprised when his analysis indicated that one out of six respondents was publishing research conducted in his or her program. This was all the more amazing to him when he determined that eight years was the median of operation for these programs. Apparently, he was unaware of Blake's (1954) earlier findings.

Some of the general findings of importance to the present study include:

1. Pre- and post-tests were the primary means of evaluation, and often more than one type of test was used.

2. Where follow-up records were kept, better grades and reduction in probation status for students were cited as measures of program effectiveness.
3. Staff numbers tended to remain constant despite program growth, and more than a third had only one staff member responsible for teaching, administration and clerical duties.
4. Most programs required teaching personnel to have at least a master's degree, 13 required the doctorate; only nine required experience in the field.
5. The majority of programs relied heavily on part-time personnel; 35 were entirely staffed with part-time employees.
6. Seventy-one percent indicated program progress was hampered; insufficient or inadequate staff, insufficient space and budget were cited as the main reasons.
7. Only 34 responded to the question on budget despite the guarantee of anonymity. Budgets ranged from $500 to $24,000, with the majority of the expenditures for salaries.

The last few questions of the survey provided participants with the opportunity to conjecture on the future. Nearly 70% felt the need for learning assistance programs would grow, primarily due to enrollment increases. Most felt that there was a larger mission in store for these types of programs.

Leedy concluded that viewing these programs from a remedial standpoint had largely disappeared. "No longer first aid for the academically incapacitated, but rather a general treatment by which all students may profit" (Leedy, 1958, p. 440).

Miller's Survey, 1959

As an assessment of the then current use of workbooks and mechanical aids, Miller (1959) conducted a survey of 372 colleges which had been operating reading programs according to a 1955 survey, which was not identified by Miller. Despite the narrow purpose of the study, Miller's data from 233 institutions revealed some growth trends and general practices information.

In the five years since the previous survey, 31 programs had been discontinued due primarily to administrative "sink or swim" caveats, staff changes or budget cuts. However, 126 reported increased student participation, in many cases double the involvement five years earlier.

Most programs were offered on a noncredit basis, and 70% limited their services to underclassmen. In a few cases, only freshmen were eligible.

Most programs affirmed materials needs cited in earlier studies, including tests and workbooks for college-level students. Content area materials were also an apparently new request, indicating the applied nature of the skills training. This period of time saw the growth of programs tailored to the needs of the students, facilitated by the development of programmed materials and the incorporation of Skinnerian concepts. Learner goals and

evaluation methods began to be separated from program goals and evaluation procedures.

Summary 1915-1959

And so a period of rapid growth of interest in college students' learning skills drew to a close. From the first how-to-study groups where reading was an ancillary of the program to clinics and laboratories where reading occupied the dominant concern, learning assistance in the academy could be characterized in the late 1950's as in a state of growth and evolution.

This period saw the introduction of standardized tests for college students, the rise and fall of the remedial concept, the widespread use of instruments for diagnostic and instructional purposes, a concern for improved teacher training and staff development, a proliferation of college-level materials for skills improvement, integration with counseling, employment of surveys to determine marketing needs and successful models and the increased role of research.

The next period, 1960 to the present, would determine whether the evolution of learning assistance would continue to grow and expand in response to the changes in higher education.

1960-present

According to Enright and Kerstiens (1980), political necessity, learning theory and technological reality combined to foster the learning center concept. The growth of junior and community colleges, the nation's "second chance" institutions, paralleled the growth of college remedial education programs, and

by 1968 most of them had developed programs for academically deficient students. Roueche (1968) indicated that remedial courses comprised the preponderance of curriculum offerings in junior colleges.

Even some prestigious universities enlarged their special admissions programs to include low income groups, especially minorities and women who were underrepresented in various professional areas. By 1970, one-seventh of those enrolled in the nation's colleges came from poverty backgrounds (Maxwell, 1979). However, four-year institutions were much less likely than junior colleges to provide learning assistance for their deficient students (Smith, Enright & Devirian, 1975).

At this time, colleges began looking to a new type of instrumentation to assist the academically unprepared: videocassettes and computers (Neidt, 1967; Supples and Morningstar, 1969). The short-term course of the thirties reappeared under the rubric of mini-courses (Johnson & Peterson, 1972; Peterson, 1973).

During the latter part of this decade, college assistance programs began to be offered in one center or coordinated from a central office. These centers offered assistance in reading, writing, and study skills improvement as well as subject matter tutoring and academic and personal counseling (Ellison, 1970; Dempsey, 1976). Frequently, peer tutoring and occasionally peer counseling were available. Tutors were trained as technicians and facilitators. Instructors saw themselves more as guides than as performers (Newman, 1966).

Two types of learning centers tended to appear on college campuses: (1) those spawned from reading laboratories and study skills programs; and (2) those which emerged from libraries and audiovisual centers. There appeared to be little conformity in function or purpose of the centers. Most were organized according to institutional needs and the philosophy of the center's administrator.

This decade also witnessed the formation of the first professional association organized to serve college learning assistance practitioners. However, the title learning assistance center did not appear in the literature until 1970 (Enright & Kerstiens, 1980).

Shaw's Survey, 1961

One survey of interest to this study was conducted in 1960 by Shaw to determine the integration of skills improvement instruction into college offerings. All institutions listed by Causey (1955) as offering skills improvement services were sent the first questionnaire. Of the 350 institutions that returned the questionnaire sent to a sample of 505, a total of 242 reported that they were currently offering a reading skills improvement program, and 84 of these programs had been in operation 10 or more years.

On the negative side, over 40% of the institutions which indicated they offered no program had actually discontinued the program. Approximately two-thirds of these had been in operation for more than three years. Moreover, more than half of the

institutions without programs reported they had no intention of starting one.

Other findings by Shaw (1961) supported those of Barbe (1951), Blake (1954) and Causey (1956) indicating that only a limited segment of the school population is served by most programs. Most programs were still offered under the auspices of education and English departments, but the number of programs sponsored by counseling was definitely increasing. According to Shaw (1961), this could probably be attributed to the increased attention during the 1950's to the concomitance of college-adjustment problems and reading problems. He cited the increasingly popular freshman orientation programs with the twin objectives of personal and skills development as the reason for the rise in leadership of counseling divisions as sponsors of assistance programs.

In the 1970's the more frequently used terms were developmental education and learning assistance programs. Learning centers replaced reading laboratories and study skills programs on the college campus. At some institutions remedial courses which had isolated students from the regular college curriculum were replaced by adjunct courses and programs designed to help students utilize learning skills in content area courses (Tomlinson & Tomlinson, 1976; Enright, 1978; Wilson, 1978; Manzo, 1979).

Analyses of growth trends in the early seventies revealed that junior and community colleges were leading the way in the establishment of campus learning centers (Smith et al., 1975; Carpenter & Jones, 1976). However, by 1979, the percentage of

involvement of two-year and four-year postsecondary institutions in programs of learning assistance was equal (Sullivan, 1979). According to Sullivan (1979), 75% of the nation's four-year public postsecondary institutions had learning assistance centers on campus by 1979.

More than half of all the colleges and universities in the United States were involved in programs of learning assistance at this time. Even some of the most prestigious institutions and some professional schools initiated learning centers (Help for the Brightest, 1976; Maxwell, 1975; Mayfield, 1977; Sullivan, 1979; Martin, 1980).

During this era libraries began to be more involved in learning assistance programs by providing a centralized location for the campus learning center. The library provided resources for both learning and instruction (Thum, 1980). Although the center was frequently housed in the library, it was rarely administered by library personnel (Devirian, 1974; Devirian et al., 1975; Merren, 1975; Boyle, 1980).

By the end of this decade it was evident that learning centers in United States institutions of higher education were the rule rather than the exception. The reasons for their growth may have been due to increased concern over retention, but the direction of the growth was the challenge (Blanc & Martin, 1979; Beal, 1980; Martin & Blanc, 1980). Enright and Kerstiens (1980) have predicted that those responsible for learning assistance programs at colleges and universities in the 80's will be involved

in staff development, instructional innovation, and materials development. A series of books outlining new directions for college learning assistance describes their new roles (Lauridsen, 1979; Lenning & Nayman, 1980). The expanded roles for learning assistance personnel include the stimulation and implementation of reforms in the traditional college curriculums and instruction (Dempsey & Tomlinson, 1980). Among other things, this investigation will be designed to ascertain whether some of these expanded roles are in effect, in the planning stages or diminishing at this time. This study was also designed to determine the effects of funding and evaluation results on the organization, operation and growth of the program.

A body of research regarding comprehensive learning assistance programs began to be formulated during the 1970's and early 1980's. Learning centers were flourishing and those interested in research began the task of describing, classifying and evaluating centers and their practices. An examination of the literature during this period of recent history revealed several types of descriptive studies:

(1) surveys of institutions to describe organization and operation (Devirian et al., 1975; Boyle, 1980);

(2) analyses of studies conducted by other investigators (McGrath, 1971; Peterson, 1973; Thum, 1980);

(3) descriptions of specific programs (Garofolo, 1970; Campbell, 1971; Clark, 1971; Davis, 1971; Levinson & Pfeffer, 1971; Shankhouse, 1971; Erickson, 1972; McHargue, 1975; Merren, 1975; Roueche & Snow, 1977);

(4) surveys and reports of evaluation practices (Maxwell, 1970; Anderson, 1975; Turner & Willard, 1975; Clymer, 1978);

(5) historical summaries (Spache, 1969; Enright, 1975); and

(6) prescriptions for establishing programs (Christ, 1971; See, 1974; Maxwell, 1975).

While surveys which investigated learning assistance programs in specific states and in community colleges were relatively abundant during this period, no evidence could be found of a national survey that focused exclusively on the organization and administration of learning assistance programs in senior institutions of higher education. However, several studies (Devirian et al., 1975; Roueche & Snow, 1977; Clymer, 1978; Sullivan, 1979) analyzed data relative to senior colleges and universities separate from the data for two-year colleges. Some studies included two-year and four-year institutions (Boyle, 1980; Gruenberg, 1982) but did not report separate findings. The four studies which reported separate findings for senior postsecondary institutions were analyzed in relation to the research questions investigated in this study. Their findings have been included in the discussion of each of this study's descriptive categories, which follows a brief description of each of these surveys.

Devirian, Enright and Smith's Survey, 1975

In the fall of 1974, Devirian and her associates attempted to define the learning assistance movement by distributing a survey of programs and centers to the 3,389 campuses of 2,783 institutions

listed in the Education Directory (Devirian et al., 1975). Of the 1,258 respondents, 768 represented four-year colleges or universities. Separate findings in several categories were reported for two-year, four-year and four-year postgraduate institutions. Notably, in the area of funding, four-year institutions were postgraduate programs obtained their funds from student services. However, no significant trend was observed for four-year institutions without postgraduate study.

The researchers reported their cumulative findings regarding administration, budget, facilities, staffing, services, clients, materials and equipment, and evaluation. Only a few trends were reported separately for four-year institutions; these were in the areas of budget and referral procedures.

In another report (Smith et al., 1975) of the same study, the investigators presented the results of a number of variables cross-tabulated by level of institution. In particular, the growth trends revealed that institutions offering postgraduate instruction reported the highest percentage of programs in existence prior to 1960. The authors postulated that this was probably a result of reading programs in education departments, which has been substantiated by an analysis of the literature. Findings regarding additional variables reported for four-year postsecondary institutions were needed to describe the current status of these programs and their effects on higher education trends.

Roueche and Snow's Survey, 1977

Roueche and Snow (1977) were concerned about what public postsecondary institutions were doing to extend educational

opportunities to those who were not adequately prepared for college. Their study, which focused on collegiate attempts to resolve students' academic deficiencies, included a 150-item questionnaire distributed to 300 public institutions. Of the respondents, 134 senior institutions were represented. Data were analyzed by institutional level but reported according to a three-category breakdown of the percentage of high-risk students who completed a certificate program. The three categories included: (1) greater than 70% completing a certificate program, (2) between 70 and 40% completing a certificate program, and (3) less than 40% completing a certificate program.

The investigation covered nine areas of developmental/ remedial education: context, philosophy, rationale, placement of students, organizational structure, support services, curriculum, staffing and evaluation. Practices in each of these areas were reported for the three categories of senior colleges described above. These findings will be discussed in the next section of Chapter 2.

The authors described the components of learning assistance that facilitated student success. For the most part, successful strategies focused on total student development rather than skills deficiencies. The improvement of the self concepts of learners was shown to be critical to successful programs.

Clymer's Study, 1978

The purpose of Clymer's study (1978) was to determine current evaluation practices in college learning assistance programs.

From the sample of 300 institutions, 181 responses were received. Of these, 106 were senior postsecondary institutions. Ninety-five of these senior institutions reported that they evaluated their programs.

Clymer's study included some general information about programs as well as detailed analyses of evaluation procedures. The general information included descriptive data regarding clients budget, services, and admission policies. The evaluation practices investigated were methods, rationale, frequency, effects, problems, success determinants, and influence on funding. These findings will be discussed in the next section of this chapter.

Sullivan's Survey, 1979

The final survey considered in this study was Sullivan's (1979), which was conducted in order to quantify the scope of the learning assistance movement in English-speaking North America by identifying institutions involved and primary individuals responsible for administering the programs. Sullivan identified 1,848 discrete learning assistance units on 1,433 campuses. He further found that four-year institutions were involved to a greater extent than two-year colleges.

Sullivan's findings were reported in a guide listing all of the programs identified in the United States and Canada. He included important demographic data such as program names, institutional size, institutional control, administrator's name, and the address and phone number of each unit on campus. The institutions and their programs were listed by region using the

designated regions of the Census Bureau and by institutional level: (1) two-year colleges; (2) four-year colleges and universities; and (3) professional schools of United States senior colleges and universities. The list in this guide served as the population from which the sample for this investigation was drawn.

While Sullivan did not describe the organization and administration of these centers, he discussed growth and participation trends in the learning center movement by institutional level, type of institutional control and geographic location. These findings will be discussed in the appropriate categories in the next section of this chapter.

The next section of this chapter is concerned with the findings of these surveys in relation to the research questions explored in this study. The discussion will focus on institutional involvement, program information, evaluation and projections for the future.

Institutional Involvement

While there was some indication of immediate increased involvement of four-year institutions, Devirian et al. (1975) reported that two-year colleges responding to their 1974 survey indicated a substantially higher degree (78%) of involvement in learning assistance than four-year institutions (43%). These findings were substantiated in Roueche and Snow's study (1977) of remedial and developmental programs in public higher education. However, they, too, noted the increased involvement of senior colleges and universities from 43% in 1974 to 61% in 1976. During this same

period the involvement of two-year colleges increased only 2% (Roueche and Snow, 1977). Within a year or two, Clymer (1978) and Sullivan (1979) found the trend of four-year institutions increased involvement even more dramatic. In both the public and private sectors, the level of involvement was somewhat greater for the nation's four-year postsecondary institutions. Thus, while the four-year institution may have initially been a late starter in offering comprehensive learning assistance, it dramatically increased its involvement in the late 1970's. Of particular interest is the degree of involvement of publicly-controlled four-year institutions. Sullivan (1979) found that three out of every four publicly-controlled senior postsecondary institutions offered academic assistance programs. Further, the dominance of the public over the private institution had been observed earlier by Clymer (1978) and was confirmed by Sullivan (1979). Still 444 of all 1,260 private institutions were committed to learning assistance in the late 1970's. Clearly, the existence of an academic support program on the nation's campuses appeared to be more common than unusual. Perhaps this was related to the "open door" philosophy permeating the nation's campuses. The fact that only 1.4 percent of the nation's two-year public colleges did not have an open admissions policy was not at all surprising. But the finding by Roueche and Snow (1977) that 40% of the nation's public senior colleges professed an open door policy was surprising.

Summary of Institutional Involvement

In view of the pervasive influence of comprehensive learning assistance efforts in the nation, and, in particular, the rapid growth of senior college programs, it is important to determine the general current status of programs at this level at this time. The fact that no evidence could be found that any investigation had ever focused primarily or exclusively on programs at this level of higher education served as an impetus for this study. Moreover, recent developments in higher education, including higher admission standards, funding cutbacks at the federal and state level, affirmative action programs and the establishment or reinstatement of an undergraduate core curriculum at many institutions, prompted the need to examine the effects of these developments on learning assistance programs. Further, an examination of the literature failed to yield any information other than speculation in this regard.

Program Information

A review of the literature on programs will be presented by categories: (1) organization, (2) funding, (3) goals, (4) staff, (5) staff training, (6) staff-student ratio, (7) services and (8) clients.

Organization

Thum (1980) stressed the importance of a clear definition of what is meant by a learning assistance center or program. On the one hand, it referred to a place or program that has as its goal the improvement of a student's ability to learn independently,

primarily through learning skills instruction and counseling. On the other hand, it referred to a place or program that individualizes instruction and student learning activities, mainly through the use of educational technology and resources. Generally, the former was organized and administered by academic departments, counseling or student services; whereas the latter was part of the library or audio visual operation on campus. For purposes of this study, learning assistance programs were defined as funded institutional programs providing academic support services for students.

In terms of centrality of administration, Sullivan (1979) reported that four-year programs tended to be less centralized. Of the 1,778 discrete units identified on 1,374 U. S. campuses indicating programs of learning assistance, the large majority of multiple programs were found at four-year institutions. No information was provided as to whether these multiple programs were independently or centrally administered. Maxwell (1979) substantiated this observation, though it was refuted by Walker (1980).

In regard to the number of years comprehensive programs have been operating, Devirian et al. (1975) observed that only 10% of all programs existed before 1960. The peak years for their establishment were 1970, 1971 and 1972 (Devirian et al., 1975). An examination of the literature revealed no evidence of the terms "learning center" and learning assistance program" prior to 1970 (Enright, 1975; Enright & Kerstiens, 1980).

The administrative units primarily responsible for the learning assistance program in senior institutions during the 1970's were counseling and education (Smith et al., 1975). However, during this same period, a trend toward greater administrative diversity was also noted (Smith et al., 1975). The library administered only 4.5% of all programs responding to the survey despite the fact that in more than 20% of the cases the programs were housed in the campus library (Devirian et al., 1975).

The question of whether administrative structure had a bearing on program success was posed by Roueche and Snow (1977). They found a clear advantage for programs having a strong working relationship with academic departments. They conjectured that this might be because of the academic credibility or institutional commitment such an arrangement provides.

Funding

It appears that funds for learning assistance come from many sources, and most programs derive their financial support from a combination of sources. While one study revealed no significant trend for four-year institutions (Devirian et al., 1975) Clymer's study (1978) indicated that university line item budgets, state and federal grants and departmental budgets were the main funding sources for two- and four-year postsecondary schools. Four-year institutions generally received slightly more federal than state funds. Further, university line item resources were more common than department funds. In fact, more than one-third of the respondents from senior institutions received 100% of their funds

as a university line item appropriation (Clymer, 1978). And nearly all of the respondents (99.1%) received one-fourth of their funds from a foundation or other private agency. In some cases, extra funding, such as from athletic departments or grants for veterans or the handicapped, determined who received assistance (Maxwell, 1979). A recent study by Dempsey (1983) indicated that department funds were the main source of financing learning assistance at a majority of a small sample (70) of selected senior colleges.

Goals

Determining the overall mission and specific objectives is one of the first steps in organizing an academic support service program. Roueche and Snow's survey (1977) asked respondents to indicate what their program was trying to do. Of the two choices given, "remedy academic survival skills" was rated higher than "remedy self-concept" with 77.6% selecting the former and 59% the latter. These findings supported those of an earlier report (Cross, 1976). Attempts to remedy self-concept were found in every successful program (Roueche & Snow, 1977).

Other variables relating to goals which correlated significantly with successful programs were having goals in writing and distributing written goals to students (Roueche & Snow, 1977). Roueche and Snow (1977) reported that 40% of senior colleges distribute learning objectives to students compared to 61% of community colleges.

While Clymer (1978) determined that student input was sought regarding the program, no indication was given as to whether

this information affected program goals. Verbal comments as well as structured and unstructured written evaluations by students were identified as common evaluation methods.

Staff

The commitment of both administration and faculty has been described as an essential element in the success of an academic support service program (Roueche & Snow, 1977; Maxwell, 1979). The selection of a knowledgeable, respected, articulate and sensitive individual as the chief administrator is crucial according to Maxwell (1979). Directors have tended to come from a variety of backgrounds (Smith et al., 1975; Heard, 1976) with most in senior colleges having backgrounds in educational psychology or counseling (Smith et al., 1975). One study (Reed, 1974) determined that successful programs were administered by directors who had headed the program for more than two years and held a joint administrative/faculty appointment.

The importance of practitioners publishing research on learning assistance has been clarified repeatedly since Blake's surprising findings in 1953 (Devirian et al., 1975; Clymer, 1978; Dempsey, 1978; Maxwell, 1979). Yet only a paucity of research has been available until quite recently (Roueche & Snow, 1977). Even then, most studies have failed to document the design as well as the implementation (Gordon, 1975). But learning assistance personnel blame lack of staff time as the reason for this void (Clymer, 1978; Boyle, 1980; Majer & Myers, 1981).

Learning assistance programs with instructional personnel attached to them appeared to be the most effective (Roueche & Snow, 1977). A combination of full-time instructors and part-time staff was a common staffing pattern. However, in actuality very few full-time professional staff are assigned to the program in most institutions (Maxwell, 1979).

Staff Training

The training of staff typically has been a part of learning assistance programs since their inception. The motivation was the lack of training provided in the nation's education departments and colleges (Maxwell, 1979; Walker, 1980). College learning specialists typically have not had formal training or graduate study directly related to teaching or administering programs of learning assistance. Yet most practitioners indicate that on-the-job training is more beneficial than that which might be offered in a formal college classroom setting. Ideally, if colleges provided training, it should combine classroom theory with laboratory experience under the supervision of learning assistance specialist in a campus learning center.

The type of staff training offered varies from workshops to courses. Occasionally such courses are offered for college credit (Dempsey, 1979). Virtually every college that participated in Gruenberg's study (1982), which included junior and senior institutions, provided staff training in one or more aspect of basic skills development. Respondents to this survey most frequently checked "special needs of high-risk students" as the topic indluced most often in staff training and development sessions.

Staff/Student Ratio

The nature of the program and budget have tended to be the key to the numbers of students served. Highly systematized programs supported by educational technology that allowed students to engage in self-instructional learning required less support staff than those with a counseling, individual or small group instruction emphasis. Recommended staff/student ratios have been presented (Maxwell, 1979), but no data correlating these ratios with numbers or types of services could be found. Nevertheless, inadequate staffing has been cited as one of the major problems in developing efficacious programs (Devirian et al., 1975: Roueche & Snow, 1977; Boyle, 1980).

Services

One of the most comprehensive learning assistance programs was established in California in 1972 for the purpose of serving the total university community (Christ, 1980). The program was centrally located and housed a reading lab, writing center, math lab, programmed instruction laboratory, study skills center, standardized test preparation service, independent self-paced learning center, staff training center, foreign students conversation service and tutorial clearinghouse. More recently. counseling, English-as-a-second-language, learning anxiety reduction, and graduate level training in learning assistance have been added to the eclectic services available in many centers. Reading and study skills seem to be a part, if not a focus, of most programs (Dempsey, 1983). And although three out of four

senior colleges reported offering learning assistance, their services are not necessarily broad ranged nor available on a campuswide basis (Sullivan, 1980).

Efforts on behalf of awarding credit for the learning courses and services available usually evoke criticism from campus administrators. Despite the urgings of advocates for the nontraditional student (Cross, 1976; Roueche & Snow, 1977), the four-year institution seldom granted credit for its services or courses (Clymer, 1978; Maxwell, 1979). If credit is granted, often it is elective or institutional credit (Dempsey, 1983). Credit is more regularly offered for staff training courses (Maxwell, 1979). The major determinants of whether a college offers credit for its developmental program tends to be the funding source and the instructional responsibility (Maxwell, 1979). If the instructors are paid with department funds or money earmarked for instruction, the college is likely to give credit. If a professor develops a course designed to prepare students for more advanced departmental offerings, the course is usually approved for credit. Whereas, developmental or remedial courses offered by nonacademic units and those taught by instructors or teaching assistants seldom carry credit (Shaw, 1980). In some cases, states determine which type of courses will be funded by state dollars, thereby limiting not only credit for courses termed remedial or developmental, but also limiting institutional response to students' needs.

The instructional methods utilized in most senior institutions appeared to be diversified. Clymer (1978) reported combinations of

self-paced instruction and large group instruction as the common modes. Workshops, mini-courses and outreach efforts are also typically a part of program offerings.

Clients

The number of clients served depends on program purposes, organization, funding and instructional methods. Christ (1980) reported a program serving 3,000 clients during the first year of operation (1972). However, Clymer (1978) observed that most senior institutions served between 50 and 500 students per month. No indication was given as to how many repeated from month to month. In a study of selected senior institutions with a small sample (70), the majority of respondents reported serving between 200 and 2,000 students per year (Dempsey, 1983).

Typically, participants in programs of learning assistance were incoming freshmen and students who were admitted conditionally or labeled high-risk students (Roueche & Snow, 1977; Clymer, 1978). Most programs were voluntary, and students were generally self-referred (Devirian et al., 1975; Maxwell, 1979; Dempsey, 1983).

In some cases, the programs were initially established in response to the demands of minorities and because of the failure of remedial classes (Roueche, 1968; Maxwell, 1979). More recently, programs in senior institutions served a broader constituency representing varying needs and abilities (Christ, 1980; Walker, 1980).

The ways students have utilized assistance services have varied depending on their needs and their abilities. For high-risk students, highly structured required courses emphasizing mastery

learning provided the most opportunities for success (Bloom, 1971; Cross, 1976; Roueche & Mink, 1976).

Summary of Program Information

This current study will attempt to fill in obvious gaps in the literature regarding learning assistance programs. Gaps in regard to the correlation between changes in higher education and those in learning assistance will be of particular interest in this study.

Roueche and Kirk (1973) have stated that one of the characteristics of a successful learning assistance program is its centrality, or prominence, within the institution. This prominence is much more difficult to achieve if the services are spread throughout campus with no central focal point, at least administratively (Gruenberg, 1982). Questions have been posed in this study to determine the number of centrally-administered programs and the relationship of centrality to funding, services and evaluation.

The current status of administrative control will be determined and its relationship to funding, services and evaluation will be explored. The attempt to determine a trend was prompted by the reported advantage of close departmental ties (Roueche & Snow, 1977). Further, this study hopes to determine respondents' opinions of their programs' administrative control. No evidence could be found that learning assistance personnel had ever been queried as a group on this matter.

In regard to funding, a major purpose of this study is to obtain information on funding levels, trends, needs, sources, and

controls as well as opinions of learning assistance personnel on these indices. Further, when this information has been tabulated, an even more important aspect of this study is the determination of the effects of funding levels and control of funding on services.

The positive relationship between distributing written goals and objectives to students and successful programs has been established by Roueche and Snow (1977). This study will determine the extent to which program goals are clearly formulated and whether respondents agree with the primacy of these goals. Further, information will be sought as to whether students are advised as to the goals of the program, and the manner in which they are apprised. There is a need to determine the relationship between distribution of program goals and the extent of services. Finally, in regard to goals, the degree to which student input affects goals needed to be determined.

The literature clearly supports the importance of an effective teaching and counseling staff to success in basic skills and ego development for high-risk students (Roueche & Snow, 1977; Gruenberg, 1982). Clymer (1978) reported that teacher effectiveness affected funding, as well; although the effects were greater in two-year than four-year institutions. This study will explore the relationship between staffing and program services. The effects of retrenchment and consequent program cutbacks will be revealed as the results of this study are analyzed and compared to previous state-of-the-art studies.

Evaluation

In the period of increasing emphasis on educational accountability, evaluation became a concern of learning assistance program administrators (Clymer, 1978; Maxwell, 1979). More than two-thirds of the senior college respondents to Roueche and Snow's (1977) survey indicated they employed an evaluation system, and better than half revealed that follow-up and retention/attrition records were kept. The most significant finding of this study was the importance of the improvement of student self-concept. When a college committed itself to the development of student self-concept, it experienced more success in terms of numbers of students completing the program and persisting to a third semester and completion of a certificate program (Roueche & Snow, 1977, p. 40).

The major impetus for evaluation of programs was to improve the total program (Clymer, 1978). The methods used most often, according to Clymer (1978), were user questionnaire, center usage and standardized test scores. Respondents with programs in four-year institutions felt that analysis of grade point average was a better index of student success than standardized test results, which focus on skills. Nonetheless, standardized tests were used frequently in senior colleges, even more frequently in community colleges. In view of these findings, the current study will give respondents an opportunity to express their opinions regarding the ways program effectiveness is evaluated.

The frequency of program evaluation was explored by Clymer (1978). Ongoing evaluations of the total program were conducted at

43.4% of the senior institutions. The end of the semester was selected by 29.2% as the next most common evaluation pattern. No indication was given as to whether respondents felt that they evaluated their programs often enough.

Since a program has a variety of components, the need to evaluate each of the components was expressed by Devirian (1973) and reaffirmed by Clymer (1978). The extent to which program components were revised after evaluation was reported in detail by Clymer (1978). Well over half of the respondents (56.6%) indicated that program revision was somewhat extensive (11-24%) or very extensive (25% or more) after its overall effectiveness was determined. However, a little more than one-fourth did not revise their program extensively (0-10%), regardless of their evaluation results.

The number who reported extensive revision to program management nearly equaled the number reporting no revision in this category. Program publicity was subjected to even fewer alterations as nearly half (47.2%) indicated little revision was made in this area.

The usefulness of materials was often evaluated by user request records, user ratings and user logs of experiences with the materials. Materials tended to be revised somewhat extensively by more than 40% of the evaluators.

Performance evaluation has a tendency to unnerve the evaluated, probably because it has appeared to focus on inadequacies. When evaluation is used to manage resources, including personnel, in

a manner to ensure reaching objectives, it can be viewed more positively. Thus changes in staff communication have been shown to contribute to a more successful program (Roueche & Snow, 1977). Yet Clymer's (1978) analysis of data pointed out that almost half of the programs failed to respond or did not respond extensively to evaluation results of staff communication.

Staff training programs were subjected to very extensive or somewhat extensive revision in 39.7% of the programs after this component was evaluated. Yet one-third did not conduct extensive revisions when evaluation was concluded.

The determination of student long-term academic success was a goal of most evaluation efforts reported by Clymer (1978). Roueche and Snow (1977) urged developmental educators to use a holistic assessment of students' experiences. They felt evaluation of students should be concerned with changes in students affective, cognitive and psychomotor skills. Thus, it would be necessary to measure their communication, computation, problem-solving and interpersonal relations skills. Evaluation practices reported in their study (1977) and Clymer's (1978) indicated that follow-up studies and retention/attrition records were used most frequently to determine students' academic success, and the majority analyzed grade point average and pre- and post-test scores. However, only 20.9% measured self-concept and 30.6% determined attitudinal improvement. Experimental studies with control groups were conducted by less than 20% of the programs in senior institutions (Roueche & Snow, 1977).

Lack of time and means to acquire data were cited as the two main problems in evaluation (Clymer, 1978). Nearly two-thirds of the respondents selected one or both of these variables. Insufficient data was cited by 18.9%. No indication was given of what institutions were doing to overcome these problems.

Evidence from the literature review reveals a number of unanswered questions regarding evaluation. It should be of interest to educators to know how program goals relate to evaluation. Other significant questions heretofore unresolved concern who conducts evaluations. Previous studies did not reveal who was responsible, but apparently assumed the director or staff of the learning assistance program conducted these studies. The extent to which external evaluators have been employed remains unanswered.

Another matter of concern is the determination of the campus office or officer who receives the evaluation results and the relationship between this variable and the type of evaluation conducted. Furthermore, an assessment of respondents attitudes about who receives the results should provide an indication, along with other opinion ratings, of the organizational control exercised by program administrators. The extent to which the administrative controlling unit for the program and the unit which receives evaluation reports agrees may serve as an indication of whether the named controlling unit actually controls the program.

Future Trends

Another purpose of the present study is to assess how learning assistance educators view current problems and future

trends. Popular opinion supports the notion that declining enrollments, increased admission standards and more extensive general education requirements in senior colleges have signaled trouble for less firmly established and loosely affiliated programs, such as learning assistance and developmental education. Have the growth trends projected by Devirian et al. (1975) and Roueche and Snow (1977) and confirmed by Sullivan (1979) subsided? This study was designed to contribute answers based on reported data, but also to assist in determining what those practicing in the field have projected the future holds. Will their projections be supported by the current trends revealed in the analysis of responses from those involved in learning assistance today?